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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

EDITED BY J. McKEEN CATTELL

Volume IX SATURDAY, MARCH 1, 1819 Number 218

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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume IX SATURDAY, MARCH 1, 1919 Number 218

THE PROGRESS OF SCIENCE AND THE FATE OF DEMOCRACY

A WAR-TIME writer tells us that "Germany has compelled the world to recognize the sciences and to treat them with respect." A popular lecturer has declared that whoever, or whatever, *loses* in this war, science, at least, has won a great victory. And our military officials have definitely recognized the colleges and universities of the country as the most effective adjunct of government in the training of officers and other technicians, in the working out of the great problems of psychological classification and vocational control, and in other lines too numerous to relate in detail.

It seems, therefore, that the sciences (or, some of them, at least) have come to a new and remarkable position in the esteem of world-leaders, statesmen and politicians; particularly those sciences which have contributed so largely to certain types of energy and efficiency, and in connection with war-work. Through the work of the scientists (most of whom are connected with universities) enormous ranges of energy have been disclosed, harnessed, controlled and turned upon the lines of the enemy with appalling effect—the destruction of millions of men and billions of property. This actual demonstration seems to have convinced the "practical man" that there is something of value in science, and that the scientist may have some place in the world of events, since he is not a mere "idealist and dreamer"!

But it seems advisable to remember, even in war-time, that the wholesale destruction of men is not the whole task of science, nor even the whole profession of war; that this destruction must, inevitably, come to an end some time; and that, *then*, science must justify itself to the world by other types of service. It is, therefore, not impossible that this widely-heralded "victory of science" may turn out to be a new defeat of science; indeed, it seems certain that something of that sort is sure to happen unless we calmly face the fact that science is something more than physics and chemistry, even something more than biology and medicine. This fact is being faced in England. The most important thinking in England to-day is saying that the problems of the world will not be solved by "apathetic acquiescence in the miseries that exist," nor by the "cynicism that saps the life of leisure," nor by "good will alone." "Good will without knowledge is warmth without light." According to this same fearless thinking, what is wanted is "the scientific investigation of each succeeding problem, the deliberate organization of research, and a much more rapid dissemination among the whole people of all the science that exists." And this science is not primarily the so-called "natural" sciences: "the science of society must be put at the forefront of all political programs . . . the ideals of government must be the outcome of the best political science of the time. . . . An autocratic sultan may govern without science, if his whim is law. A plutocratic party may choose to ignore science. . . . (But) . . . if law is the mother of freedom, science must be the parent of law."

That is to say, the name of science must be broadened, in public estimation, to in-

clude *all possible lines of inquiry*, especially economics, politics, ethics and education. And, hence, before we rejoice too greatly in this "victory of science," we should assure ourselves that from now on, statesmen and politicians are definitely planning to make large use of economic science and political science and educational science in the organization of the new world which is being released from old shells by the energies uncovered by physics and chemistry. The world is being freed from old autocracies by the preeminent service of the physical sciences; but the world, so released, can never be "made safe for democracy,"—either by the old economic and political controls, or by the new physics and chemistry. If this newly released world is to be saved, the work of social and political reconstruction must be controlled and illuminated by the broadest spirit of free inquiry in all the ranges of social interest.

This spirit of free inquiry has won a practically undisputed victory in the physical and biological sciences, including preventive medicine and sanitation: the world welcomes the most adventurous imaginations in these fields and listens to the most startling suggestions; in this way, the democratic nations of the west are winning their chance to live at all. But when the fight is fully won, and the day of world-reconstruction comes, will the world be kept free, will insidious returns upon old autocratic forms of thinking and living be prevented? May it not be safely predicted that the one chance of conserving these great gains so dearly paid for lies in the extension of this spirit of free inquiry into all the realms of life, political, economic, ethical, educational? The real test as to the "victory of science" is yet to come: will inquiry be as free in economics and politics after the war, as it has been in chemistry and physics during the war? Not only is this question not determined, but there are definite possibilities that in these broader fields of inquiry science will meet with a profound and amazing opposition, if not defeat, and that democracy will, just to that extent, meet the same fate.

But, what would a real victory for science, that is, for the complete freedom of the spirit of inquiry in all fields of human interest, mean? Let us undertake an illustration from the field of politics and government.

The change from the autocratic form of government to a democratic form was not primarily for the purpose of putting an abstract "rule of the people" in place of the older "rule of kings." Rather it was based upon an impulse to escape from old abuses that degraded the human spirit, from old tyrannies that denied the significance of the individual—into a freer world that should attempt to make room for the expanding human spirit, by the development of the individual and by recognition of the value of general initiative.

That is to say, autocracy and aristocracy stand for the uncritical perpetuation of old forms of social institutions, governments and customs without regard, or with the least possible regard, to time, or place, or conditions, or the needs of peoples. Democracy, on the other hand, stands for the constant adjustment and readjustment of government, institutions and customs to changing needs, places and conditions.

Autocracy is, accordingly, not so much a *form* of government as it is a spirit, possible beneath all forms, insisting essentially that whatever is, is right, or as nearly right as is humanly possible; democracy is not so much a *form* of government (compare England and America) or any particular system of institutions, but rather it is a spirit underneath all forms and institutions, which insists, essentially, that whatever is

must be willing to submit itself to analysis, to interpretation, and to the effective criticism of the growing intelligence of the world. Nothing could be more hollow or pathetic than the perpetuation, by officers elected by the people under forms of government called democratic, of old attitudes, regulations and customs which are either immediately autocratic, or which shelter an autocratic spirit. A so-called "democracy" which looks ever backward to the "good old days" is not sincerely democratic. It is really an aristocracy parading under the disguise of democracy but knowing little or nothing of the true spirit of democracy.

But, how shall democracy look ahead, or even look around, at the world that now is and all its problems? Is not all wisdom out of the past? Are not all the sources of revelation closed to us? Did not the fathers exhaust all possible knowledge? Is it not all written in the books, preserved in the laws, made sacred in the customs and fixed in the folkways of the nation?

And, why look ahead? If we ask "What is a good government for?" must we not turn to the past for our answer? And if we seek for examples of good and effective government must we not turn to the same past for our illustrations? And surely what the past has learned and taught must not be lightly ignored!

And, while so much of the past still remains unknown, whereas it might be known if we were diligent students—why stand peering into the future, which by its very nature can not be known, but whose allurements can surely lead us far astray?

Such questions as these are thrown at us; they confuse us and paralyze us as we try to think our way through the mazes of the world: *does* the wisdom that we need exist for us in the past history, or must we escape from that past in order to learn how to live and make the world over for the uses of the present and the future? There is nothing easy in this dilemma: looking backward, we all too easily become upholders of the glories of the past, essential aristocrats, opposed to change with its crudities and false valuations, impatient of what is called progress, charmed with old and picturesque social conditions which made, for example, a splendorous lord of the castle the arbiter of the fates of all the people of his country. We fight inwardly against the day that will end all these splendid old contrasts and reduce the world to those dead levels of mediocrity for which democracy is blamed. We can not be real democrats if we keep our eyes ever upon the past.

It follows, therefore, that if we are really to try to be democrats, we must mostly face the future, we must run the risks of following dangerous paths, of coming to erroneous conclusions that will make us ridiculous in the eyes of "the wise," of taking up with programs that may turn out to be day-dreams, or worse. There is a *certainty* about the old autocratic programs that can never belong to any democratic program. And "tender minds," as Professor James called them, will never be happy in a democracy: minds that must root themselves deep into an existent order, depending upon its "rightness" to make itself and them permanent, can never be largely free from worry and anxiety in a truly democratic social order.

If we ask the past "What is a government for?" we shall probably get the answer: "It is to secure three things for its people, viz., order, opportunity and justice." Order is a social consideration; opportunity is the individual's share in society; and justice is the proper balance between order and opportunity: order in the social world and opportunity for individuals to live their lives in the largest manner

consistent with order—these considerations make up the meaning of justice.

The existence of a war interferes with any argument, of course; but assuming that, on the whole, in America, the pre-war social order still exists, our argument may go ahead in this line: if we accept this particular social order as final; and if we accept the old contention so constantly made before the war, that "America is another name for opportunity," then justice simply consists in "grinding out the daily grist" of the world—success and failure being each equally open to each of us, and each of us assuredly achieving what it was possible for us to achieve—the glory of God is exhibited in each of us, whether millionaire or pauper, wise man or fool, hero or coward: this best of all social orders grinds out assuredly the best of all possible grists.

For these are the facts. Order is established. We have had our fixed forms of industry, polities, amusements, business, religion and the like. These have been, and we have said that they were essentially right. We have protected them with laws and opinions, and the common sense or inertia of the masses of people have accepted them as final and right. These fixed forms of social organization make up the world. They have provided opportunity for individual energy and initiative, and jobs for those without initiative; and the function of government has been largely the protection of these fixed forms: the law, the police, the soldiery, the courts have all existed for this purpose. And when a question has arisen as to just what those old forms were, that question has been easily settled by reference to the old books, old decisions, old opinions, old statements of the fathers, or the makers of the constitution. Justice consisted in the application of those old forms to life. And, if anyone objected to the rigidity of the system, he was told: "Get in and play the same game yourself, and get to the top where you can manipulate the system"; or "If you don't like what has been done for you in the past; if you do not appreciate the social order in which you live, the opportunity and protection it offers you, and the justice you can secure hereinunder, you are at perfect liberty to go elsewhere, where, mayhap, you can find room to do as you please."

This latter rejoinder was becoming increasingly common just before the war, and it seemed to possess a certain plausibility; but it was and is the denial of everything democratic and the implicit assertion of all the decadent old forms of autocracy and the aristocratic mind. The fact is that for three hundred years American history has been the outcome of just such advice, followed more or less desperately by the strongest and best; unintentionally, this advice has fostered democracy in some degree, though essentially undemocratic; and the intolerance evident in it has been responsible for the large failures which democracy has made in many directions. Its service to democracy has been of this sort:

Practically all the movements for a larger democracy that have marked the history of the world, Teutonic, Anglo-Saxon, American, have come from the frontier—that is to say—from the centers of life set up in new countries by those discontented ones who could no longer endure the insolence and tyranny of the older conditions of living, and who either figuratively or literally took the advice to "go find a country where you can do as you please." To this extent, therefore, a considerable advantage has come to the world from taking this advice.

But, on the other hand, *giving* this advice has bred a temper of intolerance in the givers, until under the new conditions of the modern world they have become a serious menace to the further development of

democratic institutions; while *taking* this advice has bred a spirit of wandering in many which has deprived society of the permanent services of some whom democracy could least afford to lose. (The tragic effect upon social order of driving out (exiling) the discontented is now fully revealed in Russia. The intelligence that might have saved Russia has been destroyed in Siberian mines.)

In all the three hundred years of our American history, there have always been groups who have assumed that *they* were the true citizens, that social stability had come to perfection in them, and that they were, therefore, entitled to deal summarily with any who could not agree with them; and for these three hundred years, nonconformist men and women have been driven away, or have freely run away, from such advisers and conditions, out into the new worlds, out "into the west," where they could worship whatever gods they chose, work out their own tasks in their own way, and build up a social order after their own desires. That is to say, for three hundred years, Englishmen and Americans have been running away from the *problems of tyranny at home*, for the sake of finding freedom, opportunity and justice under conditions they could endure.

They tried the other way in England, three hundred years ago. According to Lowell's poem, Cromwell debated long whether he should stay and fight the tyranny, or run away. He stayed and fought. They pulled a king down from his throne—an easy thing to do—and they tried to make over all the institutions of intolerance. But they had neither the large democratic purpose, the broad social intelligence, nor the spirit of eternal vigilance with which to carry through the task they had so bravely begun. Little immediate progress came from this effort.

Progress came rather from the work of those who ran away from the task, to America and who set up new institutions nearer to their heart's desires in the freedom of the new world.

Now, as long as these who ran away remained comparatively few in number, they maintained a social order that was fairly democratic in what may be called an *adult* way. But, though they were all revolters from established conditions, themselves, they made no adequate provision in their organization for revolt among themselves; they left no adequate room for the development of those same enthusiasms, initiatives and energies which had made them break with the old institutions of Europe; they set up their new institutions, democratic in an adult fashion, with the sense that these were now to be final institutions in the history of the race. The spirit of finality was as deeply rooted in these institutions as in those from which they had run away.

They denied freedom of initiative and invention to all newcomers, and to the children. They said to the newcomers, and to the children, just what had been said to themselves in Europe: "If you do not like these established institutions and the things that are being done for you, feel at perfect liberty to move on to the free places where you can do as you please."

And the discontented moved on, just as their fathers had been moving. And discontent has kept the race moving westward ever since—over the first mountain barrier, over the great plains, through the second barrier, to the shores of the last great sea. Yet, just as some good Englishmen said, during the American Revolution, that the American rebels were fighting for the freedom of Englishmen, everywhere, so from every newly-won frontier, the westward-moving pioneers have sent back their messages of hope and their practical help to all

who were still oppressed under stagnant institutions, and who were feeling that justice had been utterly lost in the turning of the years. As Professor Turner showed long ago, the frontier has been the chief source of the democratic inspirations and energies of the modern world.

But the westward movement years ago reached the sea, and turning back, overflowed into all the habitable places, until the land is fairly occupied, and *there is no more frontier!* But, everywhere, none-theless, are the restless, the discontented, the hopeful, the energetic, just as in the old days: they are the children of those who made the nation, who conquered the wilderness, who vanquished the continent! And these have, geographically, no place to go! When their restless ancestors were advised to "run away," there was room to go, and they went. But these can run no further: what shall they do?

If these should submit to the autocratic advice of the conservative community, and finding no place to colonize, no frontier to develop, should quietly accept the undesirable conditions of living, and keep still, would not the loss be incalculable? It was the refusal to accept conditions that made the nation what it is—would not acceptance of conditions now mean the gradual return to all the evils of the England of three hundred years ago? If it was a virtue in the fathers to run away, the discontent with old conditions that made them run away must have possessed some virtue. But if discontent was a virtue in the fathers, has it become a vice in the sons? To be sure, discontent ought to be tempered to the nature of institutions; but if it was virtue in the fathers to defy certain types of institutionalisms, is it not a like virtue in the sons to defy the same types? We boast of the spirit that refused to submit—the "village Hampden, that with dauntless breast, the little tyrants of the fields withstood." We say that this spirit of political and social adventure made America. But, if these modern restless ones can not find place to run away, *what shall they do?*

Let us note, again, that in all their running away, our ancestors never fulfilled the logic of their revolt: they ran away and set up new institutions, and the *conservatives granted they had this right.* They went out to escape old forms that fettered them; but they always set up new forms that, while different from the old, were usually as uncompromisingly absolute as the old forms from which they had sought to escape. The value of the frontier has not been its contribution of new institutions, since not many new institutional forms have been developed, but rather its consistent welcome of those who refused to submit to the tyrannies of old conditions. The frontier has represented the *spirit of revolt!*

The new institutions set up by successive newcomers to the frontier have usually largely copied old forms from the old groups. These have been modified in some more or less important particulars until they were satisfactory to those "on the inside," and they have thus been established and set to work. But these new forms have usually left just as little room for the revolters of the new day as was to be found in the older forms: all institution-makers seem to be autocrats at heart, even though the fact that they were once rebels gave them the chance to be institution-makers, at all.

These rebels against old custom, these migratory makers of new institutions on wilderness frontiers—how they stand forth in the books as heroes! They dared the petty tyrant—and are immortal! But—some of their children who feel the same discontent, and assert the same right are regarded as potential, or even actual trai-

tors. Why is this? These ancestors of ours were heroes because *a wilderness existed into which they could run away!* They could make good on virgin soil the protests they had registered against tyranny, and prove they were not mere malcontents. The discontented of to-day have no such opportunity: the wilderness is no more.

Yet the abundant energies of youth are with us still. They can find legitimate outlet for discontent, and room for the spirit of adventure in fighting our battles for us on foreign soil; they can die to make the world safe for democracy against obvious autocracy. Such discontent, such adventure, such death is of the same heroic stature as the heroisms of the past! Even the most conservative among us recognize this fact.

But what will be their welcome if they shall return to revolt against and fight as unflinchingly the heartless brutalities, the "economic serfdoms," the shallow individualisms, the conscienceless barterings of our common life? Will they be told, as of old, to "shut up or get out"? This is what fat, sleek institutionalism has said to their kind all these centuries. But these youthful energies, this spirit of adventure, this spirit of discovery, this revolt against brute insolence and "knowledge that is no longer true"—must these not reply: "Where can we go? There is no place for us to go, and we can not hold our peace. We have a vision of a better world, and we mean to help bring that better world into being"?

The war brings these crucial difficulties home to us in a new and fresh fashion, and the facts must be faced: there will be revolt as long as new generations are born—and—there can be no further running away—for the waste places of the earth are all gone. The battle must be fought out *within* the social order, not outside of it. What will the outcome be?

There are three possible lines of development in these imminent, crucial years, and we shall do well to note these possibilities. First, the older institutionalisms may succeed in frightening the discontented into a tame submission, or in buying them off with promises of the fat fields of Egypt—thus making a stale and profitless world, fit only for nothingness. Such an outcome, while possible, is altogether improbable, and wholly undesirable.

Second, these youthful energies of adventure and discontent may work undisciplined excesses and destroy the labors of centuries unintelligently, almost unwittingly, thus making a world of sordid confusion (as, perhaps, is happening in some degree in Russia). Such an outcome is wholly possible, and wholly undesirable.

Or, third, a new sort of frontier may be found, not of wilderness or mountain, but of those still unexplored and unpeopled highlands of intelligence—unconquered lands within the social order—protected by the survivals of custom, obscured by ignorance and prejudice, but needed for the purposes of peaceful democratic progress.

The temper of all reactionaries and of most conservatives calls for the first of these outcomes. The temper of the extreme radicals calls for something approaching the second. But the hope of the world lies in the third. We must not only accept the outer forms of a democratic social order, but the time has come for the recognition of the *fact* that the most essential and effective factor in the making of democratic history, hitherto, has been the opportunity offered by the old geographic frontier for the development of rebellious, adventurous freedom, with its ever-renewed challenge to decadent institutionalisms; and that, since this older frontier is now gone, democracy must deliberately face the task of finding a new and equivalent frontier. The only such that can be found is the frontier

of intelligence, the frontier whose guide will be the political and social sciences.

The temper of the new democracy is such that it will not submit to the old tyrannies of autocratic institutionalism, just as our ancestors refused to submit. But the new democratic spirit does not intend to run away from the task of reconstitution, as the older spirit has been doing for three hundred years—and that is well, of course, since there is no place for it to run. This new spirit intends to stay by, as Cromwell did, and fight it out—

> What should we do in that small colony
> Of pinched fanatics, who would rather choose
> Freedom to clip an inch more from their hair,
> Than the great chance of setting England free?

but the fight is to be not with guns, nor chiefly with that science which is mainly physics and chemistry, but with the social sciences—

> Reason and Government, like two broad seas,
> Yearn for each other with outstretched arms— . . .

with large knowledge, with youthful energy turned to glowing strength in the comprehensive program of a nobler social order: for this alone can be the lasting spirit of democracy.

And the fight is not to fail this time as in Cromwell's time, for the world sees, as it did not then, that democracy is not a system to be set up once for all, and the fight is not for a season: democracy is just that everlasting vigilance of which we have read,—intelligence forever on the alert—

> My soul is not a palace of the past,
> Where outworn creeds, like Rome's gray senate, quake,
> Hearing afar the Vandal's trumpet hoarse,
> That shakes old systems with a thunder-fit.
> The time is ripe, and rotten-ripe, for change;
> Then let it come: I have no dread of what
> Is called for by the instinct of mankind;
> Nor think I that God's world will fall apart
> Because we tear a parchment more or less.

The good government of the future will be that government which is instinct with the spirit of natural and constructive change; which recognizes that all its present forms are *the products of old revolts;* that its very life-throbs come from the hearts of living and growing peoples; and that its safe future will run where the paths of intelligent progress lead. That good government will not justify its activities by reference to the precedents of the past (though the past will not be ignored), but by reference to the needs of life, present and future. Its officials will be expert servants of the public good. Its spirit will be the spirit of a broad social science—"accurate knowledge and liberal inquiry at work in the service of the common weal."

If now, some should ask where all these things are to come from, the answer is ready at hand: this is the service which colleges and universities, the boasted home of the scientific spirit, are to render in our common life. When democracy became the ideal and the hope of the race, there arose at the same moment the need of a new method of dealing with the persistent problems of life and the world. That method has slowly organized itself into the tool we call science. Science does not discard the old; it looks it over carefully. Science does not destroy anything, but looks all the world over in its search for the tools, and materials that can serve mankind. "The task of science," says one authority, "is to work out the conditions under which a good life is possible for men." Without science there can be no democracy, but only old prejudicial social forms, degenerating into autocracy, again. Good government, in the democratic sense, rests squarely upon the growth of science; its spirit is the spirit of an impartial justice based upon an impartial sense of truth.

Now, this spirit is being fostered to-day

in the true university, as nowhere else. Not in all universities; not in many universities. Many of our colleges and universities were, before the war, "intellectually bankrupt," mumbling over to a bored line of "depositors" lists of useless securities dated in a dead past. Many of them were subject to old forms of institutionalisms, suspicious of every movement looking toward the future, curiously suspicious of every tendency to establish the principle of continuous intelligence, growth, science, as the very fundamental of all social living.

But not all universities were of such sort. And the war has shaken them all to their foundations. They are, for the moment, at least, "serving the present age," and the taste of real service may serve to work the profound transformations needed. For the true university faces the future. It and its sons dare the devils of old institutionalisms, economic, political, moral, religious, as the true sons of America have dared autocracy on the bloody fields of France. And the true university of the future will say to the emissaries of reaction what the commander of the beleaguered battalion said to the messenger of autocracy in the Argonne Wood, when summoned to surrender: "Tell your Hun boss to go to hell!' Lives are being lost freely in France to make the world a decent place to live in. Some few jobs in universities have been lost for the same cause; but the fatalities have not measured up to the record from France. In the future, all crucial action of a social nature must be determined by scientific investigation, rather than by customs, and men must be brave enough to fight for these things, even to the losing of their—jobs!

We are coming to see, more and more, that law is the true instrument of our political life. We must come to see that law is a growing and changing thing, just as life is; and, hence, that the *making of law* must be based on broad knowledge; and that the interpretation of law by the courts must be based not on the prejudicial precedents of the past, but upon the broadest economic and political knowledge and the widest social theory of the present. It is not enough that the court, or the legislator, should have the evidence—that is, the facts. Much more than these, he needs the *vision*, the spirit of the finer social order, the spirit of a broad and scientific interest in the problems with which he deals. He needs to stand upon the solid substance of truth, if he is to define justice in law.

In old Egypt, one of the very first abstract terms to appear in the language was a word which meant *both truth and justice*. In all primitive life, these two phases of order, truth and justice, were as closely related as primitive conditions and conceptions would permit. But with the definite establishment of courts, and the growth of complicated precedent, justice came to be administered in autocratic fashion: facts were difficult to get at; truth was easily ignored because not readily secured, until it was said of the infamous Jeffry that he "would rather hang a man than eat his mutton cold."

But we have dreams of a new democratic social order, and of a justice that is based on truth. But, we can not depend either upon chance, or upon untrained, prejudicial politicians and officials to provide this basis in truth. The state needs an institution, or institutions for the discovery of truth in every possible field of investigation, especially in the fields of social unrest and revolt, even more than it needs institutions for research in physics and chemistry—which have now become part of the accepted machinery of government.

And back of the need of courts of justice is the more fundamental need of an instrument for determining the truth upon which a secure justice can rest. For, in a democracy, a court that attempts to interpret law and lay down rules of action for life; or a legislator who attempts to crystallize public opinion into public law; or an officer who attempts to administer law—these, if they have not a large vision of the social world they are helping to make, help not toward democracy but stand in the way of its realization, whether intentionally or unintentionally. But *vision* is not enough: "Good will without knowledge is warmth without light." *Method of achieving the vision*—and this is the real field of science—is necessary, or the vision will deteriorate into mere sentimentalism. Democracy demands both vision and the method by which visions can be informed with a fine reality.

This is the real judgment upon all of us to-day: can we be democratic enough to believe that the good government of the future lies in the growing intelligence of common men, not in the precedents of the past? Do we dare accept the logic of the race's westward movement through the centuries, making provision in our very attitudes for that new frontier of science which is to be the retreat of all those revolutionary souls who can not bear the deadly burdens of old institutionalisms. Do we dare to make science— the spirit of the search for truth in all fields—the basis of the determination of social justice? Do we dare to place the university alongside the legislature and the courts, making the free university—the home of a free science—the instrument of the state for the determination of the direction law-making, law-interpretation and law-enforcement should take? (We have beginnings in all these directions.)

Do we dare even to go so far as to think of the state's supporting a free university which shall be the instrument of an absolutely impartial science —a free inquiry into all the realms of economics, politics, morality and education—without hindrance from any interest? Do we dare to hope that life may some time be inspired by real truth rather than by tradition, and guided by intelligence rather than by mere custom? If we do not so dare, then good government, in the democratic sense, is forever impossible, and there can never be any such thing as a "victory of science," in reality.

For a "victory of science' which means simply the unlimited freedom of certain sciences to go on discovering means of destroying humanity is no victory, at all, but a profound defeat. And even the freedom of biology and medicine to go on discovering ways of healing the wounds of war is not a "victory," but a still more profound illusionment. The only development that can be called a real "victory of science" is the development and acceptance by the world of a genuine freedom of the political and social sciences, economics, politics, ethics and education, in particular, to inquire freely and fundamentally into all the sources of social evil, political unrest, economic discontent and educational failure; to propose and try out with experimental freedom all sorts of social hypotheses; to criticise freely, from the standpoint of the most broadly intelligent social theory, the workings of all social institutions; and to bring in from age to age the new theories and the new inventions in social practise by which the ever changing problems of our ever-growing social life are to be solved. There can be no such thing as a true "victory of science" until the spirit of science becomes as dominant and as acceptable in politics and economics

as it now is in chemistry and physics. And the fate of democracy waits on this true "victory of science."

JOSEPH KINMONT HART
REED COLLEGE

THE ANOMALY OF COEDUCATION

"EDUCATION will be entirely revolutionized by the war," says Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler. This is such welcome news that one should not question too precisely the inspiration of the prophet. After the tedious years of chronic reform with which education has been distressed, there is a gladdening hope in the crisis of revolution. Educational foundations are certainly quaking, traditions and prejudices are being jounced out of their ruts, and space cleared for new methods born of contemporary and demonstrated needs. Of the many things that are likely to happen in this revolution, one will surely be the recognition of the new status of women, and the necessity of providing as complete and specific an education for woman's life as for man's life.

In 1820 the mayor of Boston peremptorily closed the first school opened for girls, after a brief experience with its overflowing numbers, for the reason that it would "bankrupt the city to educate girls." From that significant event to the present hour, girls have been an embarrassment to the educational system, an aggressive responsibility that could not be easily shirked nor adequately assumed. Under the chastisement of public opinion by Horace Mann, early in the last century, girls were admitted to the New England academies. When the city high schools were opened, the girls crowded the boys uncomfortably for room, and aroused the hostility of the Philistines. In the seventies under the impulse given to higher education for women by the founding of the first women's colleges, young women forced their way into many of the old colleges for men, where they met with only a frigid and constrained welcome. All along the line of development, our educational system has shown a systematic discrimination against women and a shameless disregard for their specific educational needs. The record is a humiliating one.

The main instrument of this discrimination has been coeducation, a compromise that had its origin in economy and expediency, the red-letter virtues of the thrifty American pioneer. The chief and only substantial reason for its existence is, and always has been, that it is cheap. What was at first an economic necessity has become an economic habit; and with flagrant insensitiveness educationists still regard it as perfectly legitimate to economize on the education of women in order to be able to spend the more liberally on the education of men. Until quite recently no attempt has ever been made to justify coeducation on pedagogic or scientific principles, and every such attempt is an apology rather than an argument. It is called the American system, but there is nothing in this national habit to be proud of any more than in the survival of any other habit of poverty in a period of mature affluence. Coeducation is not a product, but an accident of democracy, and intrinsically is no more concerned with the democratic principle than is the institution of marriage.

The example of the great middle west is often used as an argument for coeducation, illustrating a characteristic American tendency to argue perfection from mere bigness. Western coeducation is impressive only for its vastness, as a prairie is impressive for its size but not for its beauty. The educational system of the west was developed under a régime of farm mortgages and pioneer economies, and in the state uni-

versities coeducation was automatically enforced by the Federal Land Grant of 1862. Western civilization is still young and transitional, not ripe enough in culture to furnish standards for the older sections of the country. Meredith Nicholson, a loyal westerner, in his recent book of praise, frankly says: "I do not share the opinion of some of my compatriots of the western provinces that culture and manners have attained any noteworthy dignity that entitles us to strut before the rest of the world." Moreover, in the "Valley of Democracy" there is already a wide reaction against prevailing educational methods. The courses provided for women in the colleges are far more liberal than those in eastern colleges. Chicago University has adopted a segregation plan, and other colleges are working toward it. Even the high schools in several large cities are experimenting with segregation. And here and there separate colleges are springing up, equipped for educating women as women.

The most vital and fundamental objection to coeducation, especially as administered in the colleges, is that it does not give to women what they want and most need—an education that will prepare them for employments in which by nature and the customs of civilized society they are destined to be engaged. The college education given to women is simply a man's education, the modifications to adapt it to the life of women being so slight as to be negligible in a general estimate. It is a singular circumstance that we are only just arriving at the point of discovering sex as a differentiating force in education. Many years ago the English scientist, Professor Romanes, sounded a warning against the habit of ignoring the natural differences between the educational needs of women and men. "If we attempt to disregard these differences," he says, "or try artificially to make of woman an unnatural copy of man, we are certain to fail, and to turn out as our result a sorry and disappointed creature who is neither the one thing nor the other."

If education is something more than abstract, cultural, mind-training effort, it should be functioned for a woman's actual career as it is now so strenuously functioned for a man's career. The reformers are crying at the top of their voices for an education that "correlates with life," an education that is "realistic," that "serves a purpose." But by an unfortunate oversight they fail to include woman's life in the tract of unfruitful life they propose to enrich with educational utilities. In the long evolution of the curriculum of men's colleges, the goal of effort, however ill defined or blunderingly pursued, has always been an ideal of well trained and efficient manhood. No such goal of ideal womanhood has ever been set up as a guiding principle by the administrators of women's education. The college girl is still an anomaly, without definition or destination. In the separate woman's college, she studies a curriculum copied from the catalogue of the nearest man's college. In the coeducational college she is tossed into the hopper with men, on the assumption that by some psycho-chemical process she will extract from the incongruous mixture the essence of ideal femininity. At graduation she finds herself surrounded by a rigid wall of professional opportunity, in which every gateway bears the sign, "No thoroughfare except for men." She has never been assisted by her instructors, not even permitted, to discover the professions belonging to her own sex. When young men are shuffled aside in this manner they rebel and get what they want—electrical engineering, commercial chemistry, sociology, what not that seems "practical"; but the young

women must stand by in an attitude, as Mrs. Julia Ward Howe called it, of "passive and patient receptivity," like Milton's "hungry sheep that look up and are not fed." The result of this process of educating women as if they were men has been to graduate them into disillusionment and discontent, into a deplorable state of unpreparedness for the definite vocations which they must finally enter.

It is claimed that a liberal program of electives in the coeducational colleges will furnish all the specialized training needed by women. This claim is delusive. Electives primarily designed for women will be avoided by men, and thus segregation will already be in operation. Still more, electives suitable for both sexes are shunned by men when selected predominantly by women. This fact was emphasized by the late President Van Hise, in his effort to introduce segregation in Wisconsin University. "When in a given course," he says, "women for one reason or another become predominant, this acts as a deterrent to the free election of the course by considerable numbers of young men, and *vice versa*."

A still stronger disruptive force is working in the coeducational colleges. The women in these colleges are increasing more rapidly than the men. In the six years from 1910 to 1916 the increase of women was 70 per cent. and that of men 43 per cent. This means that coeducation is destined to be swamped in femininity, a result that has already been reached in some colleges. The attempt to stem the tide by arbitrarily limiting the number of women, as at Leland Stanford, Northwestern and elsewhere, is bound to prove a futile expedient. Public sentiment will not long tolerate such discrimination, but will demand that the colleges share their funds and equipment with women on a basis of real equality, by means, for example, of the affiliated women's college, or finally turn over their business to the women.

There are certain natural incongruities and repugnancies connected with coeducation in college that can not be denied nor remedied. The system is essentially distasteful to boys and girls alike. Every girl to whom free choice is permitted will choose a separate or affiliated college for women. Similarly the boy with free opportunity will always choose a separate men's college. Students of limited means accept the compromise of coeducation as a necessity, and the instinctive aversion wears away into a habit of tolerance. Yet a restless discontent remains, especially where a woman's department has been grafted into an old institution with settled traditions and associations. There is resentment among alumni and students, becoming at times an active hostility amounting almost to rebellion. Students justly complain that coeducation breaks up the unity of college life and makes against college spirit and enthusiasm. The *esprit de corps* of the men's and of the women's section can not possibly be the same. There must be irreconcilable diversities of interests. Athletics, clubs, oratorical contests, etc., can not be representative of the whole college, and can not command loyal support when one half of the student body does not participate in these activities and exhibits for them only a gallery interest. Ideal college life as generally understood is impossible under conditions of coeducation, and some of the most valuable results of the college experience are sacrificed. Unless the diversities of men and women in mind and natural functions can be resolved into identities by some subtle form of hocus-pocus, there can be no perfect organization of college life for boys and girls bunched together. It is an attempt to balance two scales on a single pivot.

The spectacle of a college body of young women instructed for four years exclusively by men is manifestly too incongruous to need discussion. But the grievances are not all with the women. Coeducation forces young men into a competition that is unnatural and unfair. A college senior being asked why he objected to the women replied: "They drag all the prizes." This is a cogent epitome of some of the most serious difficulties inherent in coeducation. Girls are better students than boys, surpassing them in the power of application and the will to learn. They read more, write more, have a wider range of ideas and are proportionally more intellectual. The result is inevitable; academic honors fall disproportionately to the girls. Boys are content with a low standard of scholarship, and so long as the dominant interest of college is athletic rather than intellectual, this low standard of scholarship must prevail. Thus a young man who would win honors in a detached men's college is deprived of them in a coeducational college. Naturally he feels that he has been robbed of his rights, and in view of the acquiescent attitude of faculties toward the substitution of sport for scholarship, he is perfectly correct in his feeling of injustice. There is even a deeper feeling than this, a feeling of inherent impropriety in this unnatural race with women—an Atalantan race, more suitable for mythology than for real life. A young man's instinctive chivalry and generosity toward young women are assailed, but he can hardly be expected to possess the Platonic detachment in his regard for the sex that will enable him to forgive a young woman for humiliating him.

The devices resorted to by faculties for the "adjustment" of these difficulties are more ingenious than just. The custom of distributing honors in such a way as to give the men and appearance of equality with the women in scholarship, is open to censure on the ground of both justice and morality. Such also is the inclination to favor the boy at the expense of the girl in the granting of scholarships. These and other devices of evasion are simply frauds perpetrated on the women to protect the men. Such practises are discreditable from every point of view, and should be made matters of conscience rather than expedients of custom. If coeducation can not be moral and just toward its women students, on that ground alone it stands condemned.

Coeducation is a house divided against itself. It is a case of two halves that do not make a whole, of two lines of human energy that can not be made to coincide or focus in a single point. At its very best, for higher education, the system is a lopsided compromise, temporary and expediential; above the age of adolescence it is psychologically indefensible. It was never the product of deliberate educational thought, and its wide persistence beyond the period of its economic necessity is due largely to lack of critical thought bestowed upon it as a serious educational problem. With characteristic American complacency we have accepted it as a matter of course, because it is American, ignorant or forgetful of its aboriginal origin, and stolidly indifferent to the injustice of its effects. It is time for revolution, a revolution that will give to woman a man's chance in education.

Julian W. Abernethy

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

A complete revolution in the existing methods of training in India for industrial pursuits is proposed in the Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, as summarized in the *Times Educational Supplement*. It is recommended that in order to ensure the maintenance of close relations with the business

world, the general control of non-collegiate industrial and technical education should be transferred to the Department of Industries, though the advice and cooperation of the Education Department will be needed.

Sir Thomas Holland and his colleagues admit that there is a strong body of opinion in favor of retaining the control of the director of public instruction in each province. In support of this view it is argued that the Education Department can not be dissociated from technical and industrial teaching without loss, on account of the importance of method, with which the department is naturally more familiar than any other branch of the public service. Other arguments are that any form of teaching which is removed from the department may lose prestige in the public mind, and that all technical and industrial training must include some degree of general education.

A cardinal point in the reply of the Commission is that education designed to produce men who will readily find industrial employment must in any case be largely controlled by an agency which, by its training and constant association, is in touch with the industries that will furnish that employment. Speaking generally, the different forms of technical and industrial education have as their object either the training of a man who will ultimately direct industrial operations or the production of a workman skilled in some form of handicraft. Of the success of the teaching it is said the industrial employer must be the ultimate judge.

In the case of industrial schools it is held that the small amount of elementary general education required can easily be supervised by any person of ordinary intelligence, whilst the all-essential feature of the training, the teaching of craftsmanship, must be provided and controlled by an agency which knows from practical experience the type of employee required by an industry. The same argument is applied to the case of artisans trained in shops. It is said that it will be easier for a Department of Industries than for the director of public instruction to maintain the necessary relations with railway or private shop managements.

The superior training for foremen, which will be given under somewhat similar conditions but to better educated persons under the scheme of the report, and will involve a greater amount of theoretical teaching, is regarded as falling into the same category. The Commissioners point to the danger of allowing the theoretical to outweigh the practical aspect of the training. Moreover, it is observed that the experience of industrial and technical training in other countries has evolved theories, traditions, and expert teachers of which the Department of Industries can make a more understanding use than that of education.

On these grounds the control of elementary and secondary industrial and technical training by the former department is recommended. The recommendations necessitate for each province the training by the Industries Department of staff for, and inspection of, industrial schools, the organization and inspection of apprentice classes attached to large works, and the provision of the staff for the necessary theoretical teaching.

JAPANESE SCHOOLS IN HAWAII

SINCE 1900 the Hawaiian Islands have been an integral part of the political territory of the United States. The population (250,000), however, is predominantly Asiatic. One half of the total population is Japanese, who were imported in large numbers (as were also Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, etc.), to work on the sugar plantations. The Japanese are mostly Buddhists. They maintain an elaborate system of "language schools," which all Japanese children attend, in addition to the public schools. During recent months there has been considerable agitation concerning these language schools, which are dominated by Buddhism and are intensely Japanese.

Recently a prominent Japanese newspaper in Honolulu, the *Nippu Jiji*, made the following statement concerning proposed legislation that is directed toward these schools:

We do not know whether Mr. Judd in proposing such a plan is aiming at the Japanese school as a principal mark or not. However, if his proposition passes both houses of the legislature, the one hundred and forty-four Japanese schools now in all the Hawaiian islands will immediately have to close down and the seventeen thousand children attending those schools will completely be cut off from the study of their mother tongue. Such result will be a serious matter to the Japanese here, and a great agitation in the labor as well as other circles will be sure to rise up. Moreover, it is a questionable fact whether such sudden change in the educational system will quicken the Americanization of Hawaii, which is the fundamental object of Mr. Judd's proposition.

We fear that such a plan will end in killing the patient by trying to cure the disease.

It must be clearly understood that the Japanese community is rendering its untiring help and guidance in the matter of the education of the children born in Hawaii, in order that they may become valuable citizens of the United States. All those who have the qualifications of the American citizen, and who have that special mission, perfectly understand that the study of the Japanese language is absolutely necessary and vitally important.

We have no objection as to Mr. Judd's plan in hastening the Americanization of Hawaii. But if the effect of such plan will mean the extermination of the Japanese schools in Hawaii, we will oppose the plan to the utmost.

THE DELINQUENT CHILDREN OF CONNECTICUT

THE need of better care for Connecticut's dependent and delinquent children, of making special provision for defective children, and the necessity for changes in the probation system are all brought out strikingly in a report on Children Before the Courts in Connecticut, prepared by Professor Wm. B. Bailey, of Yale University, for the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor.

Things have progressed a long way since the passage of the blue laws in 1750 which allowed the correction of youthful offenders by cutting off their ears, but in the opinion of the report, enough changes from the old system have not yet been made. The need of prevention rather than punishment is emphasized.

In New Haven, the largest city in the state, 692 children were brought before the courts in 1914 and 1915. Of this number 672 were boys. During that period no child under six was tried, though one boy of six was committed for burglary, an unusually serious offense for his age. One prisoner summoned to appear in court and confined overnight was so youthful that the next morning he had to have assistance in getting himself dressed before appearing in court. He was not allowed to remain in his home overnight while awaiting trial. The children's offenses varied from playing ball in the street and bathing naked to trespass and theft.

An exact connection between poverty and delinquency is difficult to establish, although the report points out that the families of one fourth of the New Haven children concerned had at one time or another received aid from the associated charities.

Prior to 1917 Connecticut had no special laws governing the trial of children. They were subjected to the same legal processes as adult offenders. An act passed in 1917 provides that no child under fourteen shall be committed to a jail or common lockup while awaiting trial, although it is not obligatory to have all hearings away from the other business of the court.

In most cases before city courts in Connecticut, a child is arrested one day and tried the next. This does not allow time for the probation officer to investigate the case, and advise the court about the disposition of it. This, in the opinion of the report, is one of the weaknesses of the probation system; another is the method of selecting and paying the probation officers. They are appointed and removed at the pleasure of the judge; their salaries, within certain limits, are also fixed by him. No special qualification is required of a probation officer; in Connecticut many had no previous training for the work, and seven probation officers had had for their occupations that of liveryman, hatter, contractor, watchman, court messenger and "dealing with peoples."

"In a large proportion of the so-called delinquents there is an accompaniment of low mentality," says the report. Mental examinations

to determine the mental condition of delinquent children are given but rarely. This, in the view of the report, is a weak point in the procedure of the state in dealing with delinquent children. Many children are brought into court again and again before it is finally determined as a result of an adequate mental examination that they are feeble-minded.

The report concludes with eleven recommendations which it is hoped that Connecticut will put into effect. They include more adequate institutional care for the feeble-minded, testing and special training for mentally defective delinquents, revision of the laws for the care of dependent children, and the qualification test for probation officers.

THE REORGANIZATION OF YALE UNIVERSITY

As a practical step towards bringing about desired consolidation of educational plans at Yale University, the corporation at its meeting on January 20, requested a reorganized special reconstruction subcommittee to hold a series of week-end sessions in New Haven beginning immediately, at which it would ask for and receive reports and proposals. This committee was authorized to report on its own authority to the corporation as soon as possible upon the university plan which for two months has been under discussion but the main principles of which are still to be decided. The committee consists of the Rev. Professor Wm. Adams Brown, '86, of the Union Theological Seminary, New York, *chairman;* Henry B. Sargent, '71 S., New Haven, and Alfred L. Ripley, '78, of Boston, who was at one time a member of the Yale College faculty. The committee has asked Secretary Stokes to sit with it as its ex-officio secretary.

Modifications in the organization of Yale University have been recommended by the alumni committee on plans for university development to the graduates' meeting held in connection with Alumni University Day. Among the changes outlined were these: To relieve the president of a portion of his duties through a chancellor who will have educational supervision; a closer coordination of the college and the scientific school with an interlocking of faculties so that the ablest teachers may be available to students in both schools. As to the proposal of a common freshman year, it is pointed out that the scientific school change placing all undergraduate courses on a four-year basis will simplify the working out of this plan. A common freshman year will offer all freshmen opportunity to become familiar with the traditions of the university and the time in which to elect academic or scientific courses. It is suggested that more carefully prescribed courses cover three years following the entrance year, the college to offer those in preparation for the law, ministry, teaching, business and governmental careers, while the Sheffield Scientific School will offer those leading to medicine, sciences, engineering, architecture and forestry. The committee recommended a salary scale revision, and the corporation, through a committee, expects to report two weeks hence. The committee was named two years ago and was drawn from alumni of distinction resident in various parts of the country.

THE SALARIES OF NEW YORK CITY TEACHERS

Provision for increases in salaries and a minimum wage for New York City school teachers and teachers in the other cities of the state is contained in a bill introduced in the New York Legislature on February 20 by Assemblyman John G. Malone, of Albany, and supported by the State Education Department. The new schedule would go into effect August 1. The schedules affecting New York City are:

Teachers of kindergarten and up to 6B and visiting teachers, $1,000, with ten annual increases of $120.

Teachers of 4A to 6B, boys' classes, $1,120, with ten annual increases of $120.

Teachers of 7A to 9B, girls' classes, $1,450, with seven annual increases of $150; boys' classes, $1,750, with seven annual increases of $150.

Teachers of cooking, drawing, foreign languages, manual training, music, physical training, sewing and shop work classes, the same as teachers of 7A to 9B grades.

Teachers of anemic, blind, cardiac, continuation,

crippled, deaf, parental, pre-vocational, probationary, sight conversation, speech improvement, truant, tubercular, and mentally defective classes, $150 each.

Assistants to principals, including heads of departments, $2,550, with four annual increases of girls' classes, $1,550; boys' classes, $1,850, with seven annual increases of $150 each.

Teachers' clerks, $900, with ten annual increases of $80 each.

Assistants to principals, including heads of departments in charge of boys' schools or departments, $2,800, with four annual increases of $150 each.

Principals of schools with eighteen to forty-seven classes and heads of model schools, $3,500, with three annual increases of $250 each.

Principals of boys' schools with eighteen to forty-seven classes, $3,750, with three annual increases of $250 each.

Principals of schools for the deaf, cripples; principals of continuation, pre-vocational, parental, and probationary schools, and principals of junior high schools and of schools with forty-eight or more classes, $3,750, with three annual increases of $250 each.

Principals of schools, as in the preceding paragraph, if schools are boys' schools, $4,000, with three annual increases of $250.

Assistant teachers, including teachers of cooking, sewing, and physical training, model teachers, and critic teachers, $1,500, with ten annual increases of $175 each.

First assistants, $2,500, with five annual increases of $250 each.

Clerical, laboratory, library, and placement and investigation assistants, $1,000, with ten annual increases of $100.

Principals of schools with twenty-five to forty-seven classes, $5,250; of schools with 48 to 100 classes, $5,500; over 100 classes, $5,750, with two annual increases of $250 each.

Teachers of evening elementary schools, vacation schools, and recreation centers, each evening of service, $4 the first three years, $5 thereafter.

Principals of evening elementary schools, vacation schools, and recreation centers, $6 the first three years, $7.50 thereafter.

Teachers of evening high schools, trades schools, and schools of industrial art, $6 for the first three years and $7 thereafter.

Principals of evening high schools, trades and industrial art schools, $8 for the first three years and $10 thereafter.

Inspectors of public school athletics, playgrounds, and recreation centers, and classes for the blind, and assistant inspectors of ungraded classes, $2,500, with five annual increases of $100 each.

Inspectors of ungraded classes, $2,500, with five annual increases of $200 each.

Assistant directors of cooking, drawing, educational hygiene, kindergarten, manual training, music, physical training, and sewing classes, $3,000, with five annual increases of $200 each.

Directors of art, cooking, drawing, kindergarten, manual training, music, physical training, sewing, and speech improvement, $4,000, with five annual increases of $200 each.

Supervisors of modern language, elementary schools, $3,500.

Superintendents of libraries and assistant director of lectures, $4,000.

Assistant director of reference and research, $4,500.

Assistant director of evening schools, continuation schools, vacation schools, recreation centers, and playgrounds, $5,000.

Assistant director of attendance, $5,500.

Director of vacation schools, recreation centers, and playgrounds, $6,000.

Director of supervision of lectures, director of reference and research, and district superintendents, $6,500.

Examiner, $7,000.

Director of attendance, director of vocational activities, $7,500.

Assistant superintendent, $8,000.

Superintendent of schools, $15,000.

There are two other bills before the Legislature which would increase the pay of teachers; the bills are not, however, so general in their scope and lack backing from the State Education Department, which favors a general bill to take in all the cities of the state.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

Dr. Robert L. Kelly, of Chicago, president of the American College Association, has accepted the presidency of Marietta College.

The Rev. Richard E. Sykes, D.D., pastor of the Universalist Church at Malden, Mass., has been elected president of St. Lawrence University.

After a service of thirty-one years Dr. Lyon G. Tyler has resigned from the presidency of

William and Mary College, his resignation to take effect on July 1. He becomes president emeritus and goes on the retired list of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

GEORGE E. MARTIN, who has been at Teachers College, Columbia University, during the past year, has been appointed acting president of the State Normal School at Kearney, Nebraska.

MICHAEL J. DOWNEY, director of the evening high schools of Boston, has been appointed a member of the Massachusetts State Board of Education.

DEAN WILL GRANT CHAMBERS, of the school of education of the University of Pittsburgh, has recently returned from the Hawaiian Islands where he had been sent by the War and Navy Departments' Commission on Training Camp Activities to make a survey of the moral and recreational conditions of the islands. While in Honolulu, Dean Chambers made a study of the public and private schools and made a number of addresses on educational themes before social, commercial and educational organizations. He resumed his duties at the University of Pittsburgh with the beginning of the second semester.

DR. ALEXANDER INGLIS, of Harvard University, has been appointed by the Virginia State Board of Education to make an educational survey throughout the state. Dr. Inglis's headquarters are in Richmond.

DR. MARGARET MCNAUGHT has been appointed chairman of the committee on "The Improvement of Elementary Education" of the National Education Association, made vacant by the death of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young.

DR. CHARLES BARR ROBERTSON, director of the division of university extension in the University of Pittsburgh, died on February 4, after a month's illness. Dr. Robertson was formerly a member of the faculties of the Indiana, Pennsylvania, Normal School and the Courtland, N. Y., State Normal School. He joined the faculty of the University of Pittsburgh in 1911 as professor of secondary education and supervisor of practise teaching in the school of education. In 1913 he organized the extension division of the university and remained its director to the time of his death. He was one of the most popular and influential school men in the State of Pennsylvania. Memorial exercises were held in his honor at the University Assembly on February 20, at which memorial addresses were delivered by Dr. John A. Brashear, Dr. Samuel Hamilton, superintendent of schools of Allegheny county, and Dr. William M. Davidson, superintendent of Pittsburgh's Schools.

WALTER O. CARTWRIGHT, principal of the high school in the Saxonville section of Framingham, who for many years had been superintendent of public schools in various towns in Massachusetts, died on February 19, at his home at Wakefield.

THE REV. JOHN FRANKLIN STONECIPHER, D.D., librarian of Lafayette College, and secretary and treasurer of the Lafayette Alumni Association, died suddenly on February 19. He was sixty-six years of age.

RIKIZO NAKASHIMA, for many years professor of philosophy in the Imperial University at Tokio, Japan died recently as the result of an attack of influenza. He graduated from Western Reserve College in 1884, and received his B.D. at Yale in 1887 and his Ph.D. two years later.

MARK L. THOMSEN, president of the Cleveland Board of Education addressed the Columbus Federation of High School Teachers on January 18, on the financial distress of the schools of Ohio and the imperative need of immediate relief by the General Assembly.

DR. GEORGE E. VINCENT, president of the Rockefeller Foundation, gave the forty-third commemoration day address at the Johns Hopkins University on February 22.

THE General Education Board, founded by John D. Rockefeller, to promote education in the United States, has issued its annual report for the fiscal year 1917–1918. The report shows that the board's resources now amount to $44,675,273. Up to June 30, 1918, the board had appropriated $23,597,188.81. Of this sum

the board appropriated during the past year $2,686,480. $650,000 went to general university endowments, $1,333,000 to the endowment of medical schools, $318,885 to schools for negroes, and $56,000 for educational research and State educational surveys. The colleges assisted and the amounts they received were as follows:

Coker College, Hartsville, S. C.	$ 40,000
College of Idaho, Caldwell, Idh.	50,000
Howard College, Birmingham, Ala.	100,000
Kalamazoo College, Kalamazoo, Mich. ..	25,000
Meredith College, Raleigh, N. C.	75,000
Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt. ...	75,000
Morningside College, Sioux City, Ia.	150,000
Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va. ..	35,000

The most important investigation financed by the board was the study of the Gary schools, the results of which are in process of publication in a series of reports.

More than $95,000 of the projected $150,000 war emergency fund of Brown University has been raised. One alumnus has contributed $30,000, and if the fund reaches $200,000 there will be another contingent gift of $20,000.

A pledge of $10,000 for the endowment of a library in the department of religious education in the school of religion of Yale University has been made as a gift from Professor and Mrs. E. Hershey Sneath in memory of their son, Richard Sheldon Sneath, who died on October 12.

An American Christian University is to be established in Cairo, Egypt, under the direction of President Robert S. McClenahan, who has been spending a few days at Yale University to study the system of administration and instruction and also to consider the possible adoption of the university's plans for undergraduate life and activities. The new Cairo University will be inaugurated in 1920 and may in time displace Azhar University, the native institution which still adheres to old and entirely inadequate methods of education. After teaching at Phillips-Andover Academy for a year after graduation, Mr. McClenahan went to Egypt to accept a professorship in Assiut College, which is situated two hundred miles up the Nile River from Cairo. He has been connected with this college for over twenty-one years and has been its president since 1909.

The regents of the University of Michigan, which is one of the state universities associated with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, have adopted the plans of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association. The teachers of the university will be required to pay five per cent. of their salaries and the university will add an equal sum for the purchase of annuities in the association.

At its meeting on January 3, 1919, the academic council of the faculty of Stanford University adopted the following report of the executive committee in regard to university recognition for war service:

1. War service in the Army and Navy of the United States, or in connection with special government investigations, which involves technical or scientific training comparable educationally with regular courses in the university and measurable in terms of university units by departments in the university, may be credited toward graduation to the extent of not more than forty-five quarter units. No credit shall be allotted to military drill, and not more than ten units to military science as distinguished from engineering, chemistry, and other professional studies.

2. The university has also decided on the issuance of an appropriate certificate to each student who withdrew before graduation to enter active service in the army (or navy) of the United States.

The annual report in connection with the Rhodes Scholarship, recently issued, states that only nine students were in residence at Oxford during 1918, of whom four had previously been in active service in the war and two who had been medically rejected for military service. Twenty Rhodes scholars or former scholars were killed during 1918. Military honors were awarded to twenty-eight, including seven men from South Africa, nine Australians and nine Canadians. Of fifty scholars elected for 1917 forty-six took up military service, twenty were medically rejected and accepted Government work instead, and two were otherwise employed. The report says the

election of scholars will be resumed next October.

THE trustees of the Phillips Exeter Academy have approved the recommendation of the faculty that a session of the school be held during the coming summer. They state that the experiment will be undertaken as a contribution to the solving of the problem of the wastage in American education. The summer session will put the equipment of the school in use for a considerable part of the time in which it now stands idle, so that it will give in larger measure the service for which it is intended. An opportunity will be offered to boys to get ahead in their education by making good their deficiencies in particular studies, and by training which will prepare them to do the regular work of the school year with a better chance of success. It is felt, besides, that a summer session will check some of the loss in efficiency which reults from the excessive length of the vacation, in that boys are now generally unable, from disuse, to take up their studies in September at the point at which they have dropped them in June; and will check, too, some of the greater hurt that often comes to boys from the idleness, lack of discipline, and frivolity of the summer months.

ORGANIZATION of the school teachers of Louisiana into branches of the American Federation of Labor is, according to the *Christian Science Monitor*, spreading through the larger towns, according to reports received from Shreveport, Alexandria, Morgan City, Lake Charles and several other towns throughout the State. The movement was started by the teachers of Orleans Parish, which is colineal in its boundaries with the city of New Orleans, all the teachers in this parish being under control of the New Orleans city school board. Salaries were and are very low, and the teachers are paid only for the months in which they actually teach. The average of salaries, including high, grammar and primary schools, fell as low as $49 a month, according to the teachers, with the result that many who had been teaching for years found themselves unable to live on this salary and left the schools for other and more profitable fields of work. Those teachers who remained were forced to carry the work of the majority of the teachers who had left, inasmuch as it was impossible for the school board to get other teachers on short notice and at the low salary offered. These remaining teachers, therefore, met and organized themselves in an associate teachers' league, and applied for membership, as an organization, in the American Federation of Labor, which request was granted. Thereafter the teachers appointed three delegates to the Central Trades and Labor Council. Now, the other larger towns of the state, whose teachers likewise are underpaid and overworked, are following the same plan.

THE inadequate remuneration of school teachers in Canada, and more particularly Ottawa, has been brought forcibly to the fore owing to the recent conference of the Ottawa teachers. The remedy for the existing state of affairs is, in the opinion of Mr. Tom Moore, president of the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress, the alliance by the teachers with organized labor, which step, he pointed out, has been taken in the United States. Regarding the step taken by the American teachers, Mr. Moore states that they found it was to their interest to form a strong organization and to affiliate with the labor movement, while the cause of labor itself was benefited by its association with cultured people. Meeting the objections which had been raised by opponents of the movement to affiliate the teachers' organization with labor, that the teachers might be ordered out on strike, Mr. Moore pointed out that, under the constitution of the American Federation of Labor, the American Federation of Teachers had complete autonomy, further pointing out that the American constitution of the Federation of Teachers contains no provision for a strike. Teachers, added the labor president, would have to make their chief dependence for the amelioration of any grievance upon public opinion and political action.

EVIDENCE of the care with which the Japanese follow American industrial processes is witnessed by the various parties and individ-

uals who go to study the rubber industry at Akron. That this study consists of something more than superficial observation of factories and equipment is proved by the entry of various Japanese students of maturity in the course in rubber chemistry at the Municipal University of Akron. At present there is registered in this course Mr. S. Takeuchi, of the Kobe Commercial Chemical Laboratory, Kobe, Japan. Mr. Takeuchi goes to the University of Akron after study in the plants of the United States Rubber Co., and in Columbia University. Upon his departure Professor Takeo Kimishima, of the Engineering College, Kyuher Imperial University, Tukwoko, Japan, will go to Akron for a special course in the chemistry of rubber.

THE imagination, temperament, human cravings and play activities of children under twelve years of age are dealt with by mail in a correspondence course which has been started by the California Children's Year Committee, the committee named to preserve for California citizenship children of the coming generation. The course, enrollment in which is now open by mail at the University of California extension office, 301 California Hall, Berkeley, has been prepared by Dr. Warner Brown, in charge of mental training; Professor C. E. Rugh, in charge of moral training; Jay B. Nash, assistant state supervisor of physical education, in charge of physical education; and Mrs. Alice Grover Whitbeck, librarian of Contra Costa County, in charge of children's reading.

THE next convocation orator at the University of Chicago will be Professor Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin, head of the department of history at the university, who speaks at the one hundred and tenth convocation on March 18.

THE University of Cincinnati announces four public lectures by Dr. Isaac J. Cox, of the department of history, to be given during February as follows: The Educational Problems of Mexico; Traveling through a Troubled Land; The Mexican Problems in the World Peace; Yucatan—Patriarchal and Socialistic.

DISCUSSION AND CORRESPONDENCE

WHEN THE COLLEGE STUDENT BECOMES A VOTER

IT is an old custom to mark important events in a person's life with ceremony. Soon after birth the child has been formally christened. Marriage and death have always been occasions for ceremony. Adherence to ceremonial formalism is a matter of esthetic taste. But it has an additional purpose; it aims to impress upon the mind of the beholder and of the participant the significance of the event.

There is one great event in the life of every young American that is entered into with little thought by himself or recognition by others, namely, his attainment of the privilege to vote. Our young people become of age and exercise their right to share in the sovereignty of the country with no more ceremony than is used in buying a new hat. Whether we have much taste for formalism or not, it is surely evident to all thoughtful persons that more should be done to make the voting privilege impressive.

Most religious bodies have a form of inducting an individual into membership when he reaches a certain age, a custom which goes back to the early days of the Church. By ceremony he is confirmed in the faith. Democratic citizenship is of recent date. It arose at a time of reaction from formalism and authority. Pompous ceremony was associated with what it had learned to despise. Extreme simplicity became the democratic ideal. The picture of Jefferson riding unattended to his inauguration and tying his horse himself has thrilled the American imagination whether the story is true or not. Our disregard of ceremonial however may go too far. The psychology of habit shows it may be highly useful. Impressive initiation is the first necessary step in making habitual any desired method of behavior.

The voting privilege carries with it grave responsibilities and it is important that the youth realize this fact at the beginning of his career as a voter. Of course the full meaning of the suffrage should have become

clear to the student through previous study of history and social sciences. Indeed many years of study are necessary to very intelligent voting. But in addition some brief though impressive ceremonial of induction into citizenship might give the historical and social knowledge already obtained a stronger emotional tone and serve to commit the will to a line of action. Our youth must be confirmed in the faith of democracy.

Initiation ceremonies upon entrance into citizenship intended to impress the young mind with new responsibilities have been general in the human race. They were used by the Greeks and Romans. They were common with the North American Indians. Tribes as primitive as the recent inhabitants of Central Australia have used elaborate ceremonies of initiation into the citizenship of the tribe. Since with them a highly educated intelligence was not necessary for the duties of the citizen, the boy was ushered into citizenship upon reaching adolescence.

We have placed the age at twenty-one years. Nearly all college graduates reach the age of twenty-one when in college. In this fact is the college's unique opportunity. A ceremony of induction into citizenship may be provided having the standing and traditions of the college behind it. It has been suggested that each college provide for such an occasion in February of each year. The birthdays of Washington and Lincoln, the only ones we recognize as public holidays, make February peculiarly the American birthday month. Every one likes to have his birthday remembered. A student would be grateful to his alma mater for such recognition. An annual college birthday party would furnish an impressive occasion for the ceremony here recommended.

It would be easy for a small college or one of average size to carry out this plan. Suppose a banquet party was arranged for the entire membership of the college each person paying for his own plate. At a table fittingly decorated would be seated all students reaching the age of twenty-one during the year. Appropriate addresses could be made by capable speakers, the final one by the college president. At the conclusion of his address he might call on the novitiates in citizenship to stand in token of their loyalty to the ideals of democracy and their determination to use for the highest ends the franchise soon to be theirs. Is it not probable that all future election days in the lives of these young people would arouse the association of such simple and solemn exercises?

It would be fortunate were such a custom to become universal. Several years ago the writer was an instructor in a state university when twenty of its students sold their votes in a state election for two dollars each. The institution had done nothing to fortify these young men against this flagrant abuse of a sacred trust. Young people should have impressed upon them the profound significance of the franchise. They should realize that our civil liberties which the vote guarantees were attained only after many centuries of hard struggle and sacrifice. But something even greater than the history behind it makes the voting privilege sacred, namely, its power for moulding the future when used in the spirit of intelligent patriotism. A highly enlightened universal suffrage is the only avenue to the millenium.

In times past sovereignty reposed in kings few of whom were conspicuous for justice. A just king was one who exercised his sovereignty in the interest of the whole society and not for special individuals and groups. Sovereignty has passed to the people and each voter participates in its exercise. Our good citizen always casts his vote in the interest of the whole community and not for the private gain of himself or of any one else, that no one is worthy of the vote who slavishly follows the dictates of his forefathers or of a political party, and that to neglect to vote when one has the opportunity is equivalent to a crime.

If the colleges can not succeed in quickening the reverence for the vote among the young people over whom they are privileged to exercise great influence at the impressionable age of twenty-one, what hope is there

for the remainder of the population? But the colleges can succeed if they try.

JOSEPH T. WILLIAMS

DRURY COLLEGE,
SPRINGFIELD, MO.

QUOTATIONS

THE CRISIS OF THE UNIVERSITIES

THE organized efforts of Columbia and other universities to secure increased endowments should meet with a hearty response from the nation. The colleges are facing a serious crisis, a crisis in which the future of higher education in this country is at stake. The diminution of their revenues from the loss of undergraduates during the war and the constantly increasing cost of living have conspired to bring upon them great financial embarrassment. Their resources must be greatly increased, and without delay, or they can not perform properly their part in the nation's development.

At the outbreak of the war thousands of college professors—chemists, economists, physicists, historians—deserted the campus to answer the government's call for trained specialists. Many of these men will never return, for they are receiving or have had offered them salaries far in advance of their former stipends, and unless the funds of the colleges are increased at once their places must be filled with men of inferior ability.

The remuneration of the college professor, always inadequate, has become recently hopelessly out of proportion to the character and value of the work done. The average dean, even in the larger universities, receives little more than a railway engineer; the assistant professor would consider himself fortunate upon the wages of a bricklayer; while the hod-carriers' union would order a nation-wide strike were its members forced to accept the pitiable salary of the instructor.

Not only is this situation driving out of the profession some of its ablest men, but it is making it impossible to tempt into it the bright young minds that alone are adequate to its needs. Unless some means be found to arrest this unfortunate development, the duty of instructing the young men and women of the country will fall to incompetent hands; the entire future of higher education and of scientific research will be endangered.—New York *Evening Sun*.

THE EDUCATION BILL[1]

A BILL to create a Department of Education, to authorize appropriations for the conduct of said department, to authorize the appropriation of money to encourage the States in the promotion and support of education, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby created an executive department in the Government, to be called the Department of Education, with a Secretary of Education, who is to be the head thereof, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive a salary of $12,000 per annum, and whose tenure of office shall be like that of the heads of other executive departments; and section one hundred and fifty-eight of the Revised Statutes is hereby amended to include such department, and the provisions of title four of the Revised Statutes, including all amendments thereto, are hereby made applicable to said department. The said Secretary shall cause a seal of office to be made for such department of such device as the President shall approve, and judicial notice shall be taken of the said seal.

SEC. 2. That there shall be in said department an Assistant Secretary of Education to be appointed by the President, who shall receive a salary of $5,000 per year. He shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the Secretary or required by law. There shall also be one chief clerk and a disbursing clerk and such chiefs of bureaus and clerical assist-

[1] In the House of Representatives on January 30, 1919, Mr. Towner introduced the bill here reproduced, which was referred to the Committee on Education and ordered to be printed. Some amendments have been made in the bill as introduced in the Senate by Mr. Smith.

sums as may from time to time be authorized by Congress. The Auditor for the State and Other Departments shall receive and examine all accounts of salaries and incidental expenses of the office of the Secretary of Education and of all bureaus and offices under his direction and certify the balances arising thereon to the Division of Bookkeeping and Warrants and send forthwith a copy of each certificate to the Secretary of Education.

SEC. 3. That there be transferred to the Department of Education the Bureau of Education and such educational war-emergency commissions or boards or educational activities already established by Act of Congress as in the judgment of the President should be transferred to the Department of Education.

The President of the United States is hereby empowered in his discretion to transfer to the Department of Education such offices, bureaus, divisions, boards, or branches of the Government connected with or attached to any of the executive departments, or organized independently of any department, devoted to educational matters which concern the United States as a whole or the educational system of any State or States of the Union, which in his judgment should be controlled by, or the functions of which should be exercised by, the Department of Education.

SEC. 4. That the office records and papers now on file in and pertaining exclusively to the business of any bureau, office, division, board, or branch of the public service transferred by this Act to the Department of Education, together with the furniture now in use in such bureau, office, division, board, or branch of the public service, shall be, and are hereby, transferred to the Department of Education.

SEC. 5. That the Secretary of Education shall have charge, in the buildings or premises occupied by or assigned to the Department of Education, of the library, furniture, fixtures, records, and other property pertaining to it, or hereafter acquired for use in its business; he shall be allowed to expend for periodicals and the purposes of the library and for rental of appropriate quarters for the accommodation of the Department of Education within the District of Columbia, and for all other incidental expenses, such sums as Congress may provide from time to time: *Provided however,* That where any office, bureau, division, board, or branch of the public service transferred to the Department of Education by this Act, or by the President, as provided in this Act, is occupying rented buildings or premises, it may still continue to do so until other suitable quarters are provided for it use: *Provided further,* That all officers, clerks, and employees now employed in or by any bureau, office, division, board, or branch of public service by this Act transferred to the Department of Education are each and all hereby transferred to the said Department of Education at their present grades and salaries, except where otherwise provided in this Act: *And provided further,* That all laws prescribing the work and defining the duties of the several bureaus, offices, divisions, boards, or branches of public service by this Act transferred to and made part of the Department of Education shall, so far as the same are not in conflict with the provisions of this Act, remain in full force and effect, to be executed under the direction of the Secretary of Education, to whom is hereby granted definite authority to readjust the work of any of the said bureaus, offices, boards, or branches of public service so transferred in such ways as in his judgment will be best accomplish the purposes of this Act.

SEC. 6. That all duties performed, and all power and authority now possessed or exercised by the head of any executive department in and over any bureau, office, officer, board, division, or branch of public service transferred by this Act to the Department of Education, or any business arising therefrom or pertaining thereto, or in relation to the duties performed by it and authority conferred by law upon such bureau, office, officer, board, division, or branch of public service, whether of an appellate or revisory character or otherwise, shall hereafter be vested in and exercised by the Secretary of Education.

SEC. 7. That the Secretary of Education shall annually at the close of each fiscal year

make a report in writing to Congress, giving an account of all moneys received and disbursed by him and his department, and describing the work done by the department. He shall also make other reports as hereinafter provided. He shall also, from time to time, make such special investigations and reports as he may be required to do by the President, or by Congress, or as he himself may deem necessary.

SEC. 8. That it shall be the specific duty of the Department of Education to encourage the States in the development of public educational facilities, including public-health education, within the respective States.

In order that the encouragement of the States in the promotion of education may be carried out for the best interests of education and public health in the respective States, the Secretary of Education, subject to the approval of the President, is authorized to reorganize such bureaus, offices, boards, divisions, or branches of public service as are transferred to the Department of Education. In this reorganization he shall consider—

(1) The encouragement of the study and investigation of problems relating to the educational purposes set forth in this Act and to such other educational problems as may, in the judgment of the Secretary of Education, require attention and study. Research shall be undertaken directly by the Department of Education in the fields of (*a*) illiteracy; (*b*) immigrant education (*c*) public-school education, and especially rural education; (*d*) public-health education and recreation; (*e*) the preparation and supply of competent teachers for the public schools; and (*f*) such other fields as come within the provisions of this act or as may come within the provisions of other Acts of Congress relating to the Department of Education.

(2) The encouragement of higher and professional education and the encouragement of learned societies, including the appointment of such commissions as the Secretary of Education may deem necessary.

(3) The encouragement of physical and health education and recreation, these terms to be inclusive of all public health questions relating to school children and to adults, and of social and recreational problems which relate not only to the native born, but also and especially to the foreign-born population.

In order to carry out the provisions of this section the Secretary of Education is authorized to make such appointments or recommendations of appointments, in the same manner as provided for appointments in other departments, of such educational attachés to foreign embassies, and such investigators and representatives as may be needed, subject, however, to the appropriations that have been made or may be made to any bureau, office, board, division, or branch of public service which is transferred by this Act or may be transferred; and where appropriations have not been made the appropriation provided for in this section nine of this Act shall be available. All provisions of Congress for encouraging the States in the promotion of education, unless otherwise provided by law, shall be administered through and by this department.

SEC. 9. That the sum of $500,000 annually is hereby authorized to be available when appropriated for the purpose of paying salaries and conducting investigations and of paying all incidental expenses, including traveling expenses, and rent where necessary, and for the purpose of allowing the Department of Education to inaugurate a system of attachés to American embassies abroad to deal with educational matters. But this section is not to be construed as in any way interfering with any appropriation which has hitherto been made and which may hereafter be made to any bureau, office, division, board, or branch of public service, which is by this Act transferred to and made a part of the Department of Education, or which may hereunder be transferred by the president; and said appropriations are hereby continued in full force, to be administered by the Secretary of Education in such manner as is prescribed by law.

SEC. 10. That in order to encourage the States in the promotion of education, as here-

inafter specified, there is hereby authorized to be appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the following sums: For the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and twenty, and annually thereafter, $100,000,000.

SEC. 11. That in order to encourage the States to remove illiteracy, three-fortieths of the sum authorized by section ten of this Act shall be used for the instruction of illiterates ten years of age and over. Such instruction shall deal with the common-school branches and the duties of citizenship, and when necessary shall prepare for some definite occupation. Said sum shall be apportioned to the States in the proportion which their respective illiterate populations of ten years of age and over (not including foreign-born illiterates) bear to such total illiterate population of the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding census of the United States.

SEC. 12. That in order to encourage the States in the Americanization of immigrants, three fortieths of the sum authorized by section ten of this Act shall be used to teach immigrants ten years of age and over to speak and read the English language and the duties of citizenship, and to develop among them an appreciation of and respect for the civic and social institutions of the United States. The said sum shall be apportioned to the States in the proportions which their respective foreign-born populations bear to the total foreign-born population of the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding census of the United States.

SEC. 13. That in order to encourage the States to equalize educational opportunities, five tenths of the sum authorized by section ten of this Act shall be used in public schools of less than college grade for the partial payment of teachers' salaries, providing better instruction, extending school terms, and for improving rural schools and schools in sparsely settled localities, and otherwise for providing equally good schools and teachers for the children in the several States. The said sum shall be apportioned to the States in the proportions which the numbers of teachers in the public schools of the respective States bear to the total number of public-school teachers in the United States, not including outlying possessions, said apportionment to be based upon figures collected by the Department of Education: *Provided, however,* That no State shall share in the apportionment provided by this section of this Act unless such State shall require every public-school district to maintain a legal school for at least twenty-four weeks in each year, and unless such State shall have enacted and enforced an adequate compulsory school-attendance law, and unless such State shall have enacted and enforced laws requiring that the basic language of instruction in the common-school branches in all schools, public and private and parochial, shall be the English language only.

SEC. 14. That in order to encourage the States in the promotion of physical and health education and recreation two tenths of the sum authorized by section ten of this Act shall be used for physical education and recreation, the medical and dental examination of children of school age, the determination of mental and physical defects in such children, the employment of school nurses, the establishment and maintenance of school dental clinics, and the instruction of the people in the principles of health and sanitation. The said sum shall be apportioned to the States in the proportions which their respective entire populations bear to the total population of the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding census of the United States.

SEC. 15. That in order to encourage the States in preparing teachers for the schools, particularly rural schools, three twentieths of the sum authorized by section ten of this Act shall be used to prepare teachers, to encourage a more nearly universal preparation of prospective teachers, to extend the facilities for the improvement of teachers already in service, to encourage through the establishment of scholarships and otherwise a greater number of talented young people to make adequate preparation for public-school service,

and otherwise to provide an increased number of trained and competent teachers. The said sum shall be apportioned to the States in the proportion which the numbers of teachers in the public schools of the respective States bear to the total number of public-school teachers in the United States, not including outlying possessions, said apportionment to be based on figures collected by the Department of Education.

SEC. 16. That in the event the allotments under sections eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen to any State aggregate less than $20,000 per annum and said State is willing to meet all the conditions of this Act and to provide $1 for each dollar of Federal money, either from State or local sources, or both, to the sum of $20,000 per annum, the Secretary of Education is authorized to make said allotment; and in order to guarantee to any State a minimum of not less than $20,000, provided said States meets the conditions of this Act as herein specified, an additional sum of $500,000, or as much thereof as may be needed, is hereby authorized annually.

SEC. 17. That in order to secure the benefits of the authorization made in section ten of this Act and of all or any apportionments made in sections eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen of this Act any State shall, through the legislative authority thereof, accept the provisions of this Act and designate its chief State educational authority, and give to the same all necessary power to act as herein provided in connection with the Department of Education in the administration of this Act in so far as it relates to the aiding of the States in the promotion of education. In any State in which the legislature does not meet in nineteen hundred and nineteen, if the governor of that State, so far as he is authorized to do so, shall accept the provisions of this Act and designate the State's chief educational authority to act in connection with the Department of Education, the said Department of Education shall recognize such designation by the governor for the purpose of this Act until the legislature of such State meets in due course and has been in session sixty days. Any State may accept the provisions of any one or more of the respective apportionments herein authorized and may defer the acceptance of any one or more of said apportionments. In the acceptance of the provisions of this Act the legislature shall designate and appoint as custodian for all funds received as apportionments under the provisions of this Act its State treasurer, who shall receive and provide for the proper custody and disbursement of all money paid to the State from such apportionments, said disbursements to be made from warrants duly drawn by the State's chief educational authority which has been duly designated to act in connection with the Department of Education as provided in this section of this Act.

SEC. 18. That the Secretary of Education is authorized to prescribe a plan of keeping accounts of educational expenditures for use in the several States in so far as such expenditures relate to the provisions of this Act. The Secretary may prescribe or approve the forms to be used in keeping such school accounts and the making of such school records as in his judgment are required to insure the proper administration of the provisions of this Act. He shall appoint an auditor to have charge of such accounting in the several States and of the examination of such accounts, and he shall appoint such assistant auditors as may be necessary to aid in examining and verifying said accounts showing expenditure of moneys by the States for the purpose of meeting the provisions of this Act and of examining such other educational records as may be required.

SEC. 19. That in order to secure the benefits of the authorizations in sections ten and sixteen of this Act and of all or any of the apportionments made in sections eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen of this Act the State's chief educational authority which has been duly designated to act in connection with the Department of Education, as provided in section seventeen of this Act, shall present to the Secretary of Education plans and regulations for carrying out the provisions of this

Act in said State, which plans shall specifically show courses of study and the standards of teacher preparation to be maintained. If said plans show that the State has in good faith made provisions for carrying out the purposes and complying with the conditions of this Act, in so far as they relate to aiding such State in the promotion of education, the Secretary of Education shall apportion to the said State such fund or funds as said State may be entitled to under this Act: *Provided, however,* That no money appropriated shall be paid from any fund in any year to any State, unless a sum equally as large has been provided by said State, or by local authorities, or by both, for the removal of illiteracy, for the Americanization of immigrants, for the equalization of educational opportunities, for physical education, for teacher preparation, or such other purpose as the case may be, and said sum appropriated by the State shall not be less for the equalization of educational opportunities, the promotion of physical and health education, and the preparation of teachers, than that appropriated for the same purpose for the fiscal year next preceding the adoption of this Act: *And provided further,* That no such sum shall be used by any State, county, district, or local authority, directly or indirectly, for the purchase, rental, erection, preservation, or repair of any building or equipment, or for the purchase or rental of land, or for the support of any religious or privately endowed, owned, or conducted school or college, but only for schools entirely owned and controlled and conducted by the State or county or district, or local authority, as may be provided for under the laws of said State.

SEC. 20. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to pay quarterly, on the first day of July, October, January, and April, to the treasurer of any State entitled to any apportionment, such apportionment as is properly certified to him by the Secretary of Education. Wherever any part of the fund apportioned annually to any State for any of the purposes named in sections eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen of this Act has not been expended for said purpose, a sum equal to such unexpended part shall be deducted from the next succeeding annual apportionment made to said State for said purpose. The Secretary of Education may withhold the apportionment of moneys to any State whenever it shall be determined that such moneys are not being expended for the purposes and under the conditions of this Act. If any portion of the moneys received by the treasurer of a State under this Act for any of the purposes herein provided shall, by action or contingency, be diminished or lost, it shall be replaced by such State, and until so replaced no subsequent apportionment for such purpose shall be paid to such State.

SEC. 21 That every State accepting the provisions of this Act shall, not later than September first of each year, make a report to the Secretary of Education, showing in such detail as he may prescribe the work done in said State in carrying out the purposes and provisions of this Act, and the receipt and expenditure of moneys paid to said State under the conditions of this Act. If any State fails to make said report within the time prescribed the Secretary of Education may, in his discretion, discontinue immediately the payment of any moneys which have been apportioned under the terms of this Act to said State. The Secretary of Education, not later than December first of each year, shall make a report to Congress on the administration of sections ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, eighteen, nineteen, and twenty of this Act, and shall include in said report a summary of the reports made to him by the several States. The Secretary of Education shall, at the same time, make such recommendations to define further the purposes and plans for Federal encouragement of the States in education as will, in his judgment, improve the administration of the moneys appropriated under sections, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen of this Act.

SEC. 22. That this Act shall take effect March fourth, nineteen hundred and nineteen, and all Acts and parts of Acts inconsistent with this Act are here repealed.

SOCIETIES AND MEETINGS

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

PROGRAM OF THE EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING, HOTEL LASALLE, CHICAGO, FEBRUARY 26 AND 27, 1919

President—EDWIN L. MILLER, principal, Northwestern High School, Detroit, Michigan.

Secretary—JAMES F. HOSIC, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

Wednesday, February 26, General Session, 9:30 A.M.

President's Address, War and poetry: EDWIN L. MILLER, principal of Northwestern High School, Detroit, Mich.

The Anglo-American ideal: EMERSON VENABLE, Walnut Hills High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

The teaching of American ideals in English classes: CHARLES S. PENDLETON, University of Wisconsin.

Government plans for reorganization, Americanization, and school service: J. W. SEARSON, managing editor of *School Service*.

Conference on the Supervision of English Teaching, Red Room, 2 o'clock.

The improvement of teachers in service: CHARLES S. THOMAS, head of the Department of English, School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

Procedure with standard tests: C. C. CERTAIN, Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Michigan.

Specific aims in the course in literature: G. EUNICE MEERS, North High School, Des Moines, Ia.

Meeting of the board of directors, 4:30 o'clock.

Conference on vocational English, 8 o'clock.

The problems of the committee on vocational English: NATHANIEL W. BARNES, chairman, University of Chicago.

Conditions in the secondary schools: LEVERETT L. LYON, Department of Commerce, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Business correspondence: L. H. BEALL, Sears Roebuck & Company, Chicago, Ill.

Journalism in school and colleges: WILLARD M. BLEYER, University of Wisconsin.

Speech improvement among employees: MRS. LOUISE SCHAEFER, Welfare Department, Marshall Field and Company.

Thursday, February 27. General Session, 9:30 A.M.

Symposium: The Adjustment of English Teaching to Present Needs—Elise Timberlake, Industrial Institute and College, Columbus, Miss.; T. W. Gosling, Supervisor of Secondary Education, Madison, Wis.; Julia Gettemy, Moline High School, Moline, Illinois; E. H. Fowler, Lewiston (Idaho) State Normal School; Thomas W. Briggs, Teachers College, Columbia University; Joseph M. Thomas, University of Minnesota; Fred N. Scott, University of Michigan; Edwin Greenlaw, University of North Carolina.

Section meetings, 2 o'clock.

A. Senior and junior high school and grammar grades.

Gleanings from freshman English: FLORENCE LIVINGSTON JOY, Oberlin, Ohio.

Teaching some American ideals through English composition: RICHARD L. SANDWICK, principal of Deerfield-Shields Township High School, Highland Park, Ill.

Teaching English to farm boys: MARTHA CLAY, Central High School, Grand Rapids, Mich.

Projects in literature: MARIETTA HYDE, East Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio.

B. College and normal school—East Room.

Pedagogical aspects of linguistic ability: G. C. BRANDENBURG, Purdue University.

The marking of English themes: JAMES CLOYD BOWMAN, State College, Ames, Ia.

English A once more: FRANKLIN B. SNYDER, Northwestern University.

Preliminary report of the Committee for the Training of Teachers: JOSEPH M. THOMAS, University of Minnesota.

C. Library.

Conference on the problems of school and college librarians. Leader, Helen S. Babcock, Austin High School, Chicago, Illinois.

Business meeting, 4:30 o'clock.

General session, 8 o'clock.

New and unfinished business.

Reports of Committees: (1) On Labor and Cost of English Teaching, E. M. Hopkins; (2) On Examinations, C. C. Certain, Clark W. Northup, W. W. Charters; (3) On Economy of Time, Mary B. Fontaine, Edwin Fairley, Elizabeth Hodgson, C. H. Ward, S. A. Leonard; (4) On American Speech, Clarence Stratton.

Library and other exhibits.

An exhibit of books, cases, pictures, slides, etc., was installed and explained by a group of librarians working under the direction of Miss Helen Babcock, of the Austin High School and Chicago Public Library.